

O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY TA’LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR VAZIRLIGI

QORAQALPOQ DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI
HUZURIDAGI PEDAGOG KADRLARNI QAYTA TAYYORLASH VA
ULARNING MALAKASINI OSHIRISH TARMOQ MARKAZI

“TILSHUNOSLIKNING ZAMONAVIY YO‘NALISHLARI”

moduli bo‘yicha

O‘QUV–USLUBIY MAJMU‘A

NUKUS– 2026

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TASTÍYQLAYMAN”

Aymaqlıq orayı direktorı
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“ _____ ” _____ 2026 jıl

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O‘ Q U V – U S L U B I Y M A J M U A

NUKUS– 2026

Modulning o'quv-uslubiy majmuasi Oliy ta'lim, fan va innovatsiyalar vazirligining 2024-yil 27-dekabrdagi 485-sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan o'quv dasturi va o'quv rejasiga muvofiq ishlab chiqilgan.

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(“__” _____ 2025__-yildagi ____ -sonli bayonoma)

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ISHCHI DASTUR

ISHCHI DASTUR

Kirish

Ushbu Sillabus O'zbekiston Respublikasining 2020-yil 23-sentabrda tasdiqlangan "Ta'lim to'g'risida" Qonuni, O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2015-yil 12-iyundagi "Oliy ta'lim muassasalarining rahbar va pedagog kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va malakasini oshirish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish to'g'risida" PF-4732-son, 2019-yil 27-avgustdagi "Oliy ta'lim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining uzluksiz malakasini oshirish tizimini joriy etish to'g'risida" PF-5789-son, 2019-yil 8-oktabrdagi "O'zbekiston Respublikasi oliy ta'lim tizimini 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish konsepsiyasini tasdiqlash to'g'risida" PF-5847-son, 2020 yil 29 oktabrdagi "Ilm-fanni 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish konsepsiyasini tasdiqlash to'g'risida" PF-6097-son, 2022-yil 28-yanvardagi "2022-2026 yillarga mo'ljallangan Yangi O'zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasi to'g'risida" PF-60-son, 2023-yil 25-yanvardagi "Respublika ijro etuvchi hokimiyat organlari faoliyatini samarali yo'lga qo'yishga doir birinchi navbatdagi tashkiliy chora-tadbirlar to'g'risida" PF-14-son, O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2023-yil 11-sentabrdagi "O'zbekiston — 2030" strategiyasi to'g'risida" PF-158-son Farmonlari, shuningdek, O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2024 yil 21 iyundagi "Aholi va davlat xizmatchilarining korrupsiyaga qarshi kurashish sohasidagi bilimlarini uzluksiz oshirish tizimini joriy qilish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida" PQ-228-son, O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2021 yil 17 fevraldagi "Sun'iy intellekt texnologiyalarini jadal joriy etish uchun shart-sharoitlar yaratish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida" PQ-4996-son qarorlari va O'zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining "Oliy ta'lim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining malakasini oshirish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish bo'yicha qo'shimcha chora-tadbirlar to'g'risida" 2019-yil 23-sentabrdagi 797-son hamda O'zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining "Oliy ta'lim tashkilotlari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va malakasini oshirish tizimini samarali tashkil qilish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida" 2024-yil 11-

iyuldagi 415-son Qarorlarida belgilangan ustuvor vazifalar mazmunidan kelib chiqqan holda Kurs o'quv dasturi asosida tuzilgan bo'lib, u oliy ta'lim muassasalari pedagog kadrlarining kasb mahorati hamda innovatsion kompetentligini rivojlantirish, sohaga oid ilg'or xorijiy tajribalar, yangi bilim va malakalarni o'zlashtirish, shuningdek amaliyotga joriy etish ko'nikmalarini takomillashtirishni maqsad qiladi.

Sillabus doirasida berilayotgan mavzular ta'lim sohasi bo'yicha pedagog kadrlarni qayta tayyorlash va malakasini oshirish mazmuni, sifati va ularning tayyorgarligiga qo'yiladigan umumiy malaka talablari va o'quv rejalari asosida shakllantirilgan bo'lib, uning mazmuni yangi O'zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasi va jamiyatning ma'naviy asoslarini yoritib berish, oliy ta'limning normativ-huquqiy asoslari bo'yicha ta'lim-tarbiya jarayonlarini tashkil etish, pedagogik faoliyatda raqamli kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish, ilmiy-innovatsion faoliyat darajasini oshirish, pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirish, ta'lim sifatini ta'minlashda baholash metodikalaridan samarali foydalanish, Chet tili o'qitish metodikasining zamonaviy tendensiyalari bo'yicha tegishli bilim, ko'nikma, malaka va kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirishga yo'naltirilgan.

Malakaviy attestatsiya

Modulning maqsadi va vazifalari

Oliy ta'lim muassasalari pedagog kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va ularning malakasini oshirish kursining **maqsadi** pedagog kadrlarning innovatsion yondoshuvlar asosida o'quv-tarbiyaviy jarayonlarni yuksak ilmiy-metodik darajada loyihalashtirish, sohadagi ilg'or tajribalar, zamonaviy bilim va malakalarni o'zlashtirish va amaliyotga joriy etishlari uchun zarur bo'ladigan kasbiy bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarini takomillashtirish, shuningdek ularning ijodiy faolligini rivojlantirishdan iborat.

Modulning **vazifalariga** quyidagilar kiradi:

- "Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish: ingliz tili" yo'nalishida pedagog kadrlarning kasbiy bilim, ko'nikma, malakalarini rivojlantirish va takomillashtirish;

- pedagoglarning ijodiy-innovatsion faollik darajasini oshirish;
- pedagog kadrlar tomonidan zamonaviy axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalari, zamonaviy ta'lim va innovatsion texnologiyalar sohasidagi ilg'or xorijiy tajribalarning o'zlashtirilishini ta'minlash;
- o'quv jarayonini tashkil etish va uning sifatini ta'minlash borasidagi ilg'or xorijiy tajribalar, zamonaviy yondashuvlarni o'zlashtirish;
- "Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish:ingliz tili" yo'nalishida qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish jarayonlarini fan va ishlab chiqarishdagi innovatsiyalar bilan o'zaro integratsiyasini ta'minlash.

Modul yakunida tinglovchilarning bilim, ko'nikma va malakalari hamda kompetensiyalariga qo'yiladigan talablar:

Qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish kursining o'quv modullari bo'yicha tinglovchilar quyidagi yangi bilim, ko'nikma, malaka hamda kompetensiyalarga ega bo'lishlari talab etiladi:

Tinglovchi:

- mutaxassislikning boshqa fanlari bilan integrallashgan holda o'qitiladi va tinglovchilarning chet tili bo'yicha kommunikativ kompetentligini (lingvistik, kognitiv, lingvomadaniyatshunoslik, madaniyatlararo muloqot va pragmalingvistika, ijtimoiy-lingvistik, diskursiv, strategik, ijtimoiy-madaniy);
- til va tafakkur, til va ong, til va madaniyat, til va nutq o'zaro munosabatlarini, insonning tilda namoyon bo'luvchi kognitiv faoliyatini har taraflama o'rganishni;
- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarining metodologik printsiplari, asosiy tushunchalarini, borliq, dunyo va voqelikni bilish va uni til orqali ongli idrok etish va kategoriyalash;
- tilda turli xil ekstralingvistik va madaniy xarakterga ega bilim tuzilmalarining aks etilishi, turli elatlar vakillari muloqoti jarayonida ekstralingvistik omillarning egallashi va takomillashtirishni;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yoʻnalishlari nuqtai nazaridan til –madaniyatlararo muloqot vositasi, bilim olish va saqlash, madaniyatni oʻzida aks etish, uni amalda qoʻllash va uzatish manbai va nihoyat, tafakkurni va insonning dunyoqarashini shakllantiruvchi vosita sifatida talqin etishni;
- til orqali inson borliq va voqelik haqidagi axborotni qabul qilish, toʻplash, qayta ishlash, tartibga solish va idrok etishni;
- zamonaviy lingvistik yoʻnalishlarda alohida ahamiyat kasb etgan lisoniy faoliyatining har bir turi modul sifatida belgilangan (kognitiv lingvistika, qiyosiy lingvomadaniyatshunoslik, lingvopragmatika) modullarni egallash jarayoni integrallashgan holda olib borishni;
- xorijiy tillarni umumevropa standartlari talablari asosida oʻqitishning lingvistik aspektlarini;
- ingliz tili fanidagi zamonaviy yondashuvlar, kompetentlik, kommunikativ, integrallashgan yondashuvlar, ularning asosiy tamoyillarini;
- shaxsga yoʻnaltirilgan, integral yondashuv va kommunikativ, lingvistik, sociolingvistik, diskursiv, strategik, kasbiy, umummadaniy kompetentlikni integrallash tamoyillarini;
- innovatsiya va innovatsion texnologiyalarning taʼrifi, tasnifi, taʼlim-tarbiya jarayonida innovatsion texnologiyalardan foydalanish yoʻllarini;
- oʻquv jarayonini faollashtirishda innovatsiyalar, faollashtirish mezonlarini;
- ingliz tilida insho yozish mahorati va analiz qilish masalalarini;
- ingliz tili oʻqitishda eshitish koʻnikmasining ahamiyatini;
- ingliz tili oʻrgatish jarayonida kuzatishning ahamiyatini;
- darslarni kuzatish orqali oʻqituvchining til oʻqitish mahoratni oshirish masalalarini;
- bilimlar tuzilmalari va axborotning aks ettirilishi yoʻllarini oʻrganishga qaratilgan kognitiv metodlardan foydalanish **koʻnikmalariga** ega boʻlishi lozim.

- til o'qitishdagi turli xorijiy yondashuvlar hamda ularni til o'qitilayotgan va o'rganilayotgan sharoitga qarab to'g'ri qo'llay olish;
- lingvistik va madaniyatarolararo kompetensiyalarni baholash;
- an'anaviy va zamonaviy tahlil metodlari asosida lisoniy va madaniy tuzilmalarning o'zaro munosabatini aniqlash va tahlil o'tkazish;
- ingliz tili darsida topshiriqlarning osondan murakkablikka o'sish holati ahamiyatlarini ochib berish;
- ingliz tilini o'yin va rolli o'yinlar orqali tashkillashtirish *kompetensiyalariga* ega bo'lishi lozim.

KURS SILLABUSI

Zamonaviy lingvistikaning asosiy yo'nalishlari

Modulning hajmi: Jami 14 soat, ma'ruza 6 soat, seminar 8 soat

Maqsadi: Ushbu kurs tinglovchilarga zamonaviy tilshunoslikning asosiy yo'nalishlari, usullari va tadqiqot obyektlari haqida bilim berish hamda ularning lingvistik tahlil qilish ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirish.

Vazifalar:

1. Kognitiv lingvistika, lingvokulturologiya, korpus lingvistikasi va boshqa zamonaviy yo'nalishlarning nazariy asoslarini tushuntirish;
2. Zamonaviy lingvistika va an'anaviy lingvistika o'rtasidagi farqlarni tahlil qilish;
3. Til va madaniyat o'rtasidagi o'zaro bog'liqlikni tushuntirish;
4. Lingvistik tadqiqot metodlarini o'rgatish;
5. Turli lingvistik yo'nalishlar bo'yicha mustaqil tadqiqot olib borish ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish;

O'qitish usullari:

- Ma'ruza va amaliy mashg'ulotlar
- Jamoaviy muhokamalar
- Tadqiqot ishlari

- Prezentatsiya va tahlil
- Korpus lingvistikasi asosida amaliy ishlar

Mavzular taqsimoti:

#	Mavzular	Soat
Ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari		
1	Kirish: Zamonaviy lingvistika tushunchasi va uning dolzarbligi.	2
2	Kognitiv lingvistika: Konseptuallashtirish va kategoriyalashtirish masalalari. Kontsept va lingvistik tahlil: Kognitiv lingvistikaning asosiy tushunchalari.	2
3	Lingvokulturologiya: Fan sifatida va uning o'rganish obyekti. Til va madaniyat: Olamning konseptual va lisoniy manzarasi. Sotsiolingvistika: Jamiyat va til. Pragmalingvistika: Tilning kontekstdagi qo'llanilishi.	2
	Jami:	6
Seminar mashg'ulotlari		
5	Dinamik va statik lingvistika: Tadqiqot usullari va yondashuvlar. Sinxron va diaxron lingvistika: Tarixiy va zamonaviy yondashuvlar.	2
6	Intralingvistika va ekstralingvistika: Ichki va tashqi omillar.	2
7	Paralingvistika va psixolingvistika: Til va inson psixikasi.	2
8	Matematik va kompyuter lingvistikasi: Sun'iy intellekt va tilshunoslik. Tahliliy seminar: Mustaqil tadqiqotlarning taqdimoti va muhokamasi.	2
	Jami:	14

Natijalar:

Kurs yakunida tinglovchilar zamonaviy lingvistikaning asosiy yo'nalishlarini tushunib, mustaqil tahlil qilish va tadqiqot olib borish ko'nikmalariga ega bo'ladilar.

Baholash mezonlari:

- **Faollik va muhokamalar:** 20%
- **Mustaqil ish va tadqiqot:** 30%
- **Oraliq test:** 20%
- **Yakuniy loyiha:** 30%
-

NAZARIY MASHG'ULOTLAR MAZMUNI (6 soat)

1 MAVZU: Kirish: Zamonaviy lingvistika tushunchasi va uning dolzarbligi (2 soat)

Zamonaviy tilshunoslikda terminologiyaning o'rni. Kontseptuallashtirish va kategoriyalashtirish masalalari. Kontsept – kognitiv lingvistikaning asosiy tushunchasi sifatida.

2 MAVZU: Kognitiv lingvistika. Kontsept va lingvistik tahlil (2 soat)

Kognitiv lingvistika. Kognitiv lingvistikaning asosiy tushunchalari. Olam manzarasi. Olamning konseptual manzarasi, olamning lisoniy manzarasining tadqiqot obyekti.

3 MAVZU: Lingvokulturologiya. Pragmalingvistika (2 soat)

Til va madaniyat. Olamning konseptual va lisoniy manzarasi. Kontsept – kognitiv lingvistikaning asosiy tushunchasi sifatida. Lingvokulturologiya fan sifatida va uning o'rganish ob'ekti va asosiy tushunchalari. Til – madaniyat masalasining tilshunoslikdagi muammosi.

AMALIY MASHG'ULOTLAR MAZMUNI (8 soat)

1 MAVZU: Dinamik va statik lingvistika. Sinxron va diaxron lingvistika (2 soat)

Tadqiqot usullari va yondashuvlar. Tarixiy va zamonaviy yondashuvlar.

2 MAVZU: Intralingvistika va ekstralingvistika (2 soat)

Intralingvistika va ekstralingvistika. Ichki va tashqi omillar.

3 MAVZU: Paralingvistika va psixolingvistika

Paralingvistika va psixolingvistika. Til va inson psixikasi.

4 MAVZU: Matematik va kompyuter lingvistikasi. Tahliliy seminar (2 soat)

Sun'iy intellekt va tilshunoslik. Mustaqil tadqiqotlarning taqdimoti va muhokamasi.

O'QITISH SHAKLLARI

Mazkur modul bo'yicha o'quv mashg'ulotlari asosan interaktiv ta'lim prinsiplari asosida quyidagi o'qitish shakllarida tashkil etiladi.

- ma'ruzalar, amaliy mashg'ulotlar (ma'lumotlar va texnologiyalarni anglab olish, nazariy bilimlarni mustahkamlash);
- davra suhbatlari (egallangan bilimlar asosida kabi kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish, eshitish, idrok qilish va mantiqiy xulosalar chiqarish);
- bahs va munozaralar (o'zaro tajriba almashish orqali kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish).



LECTURE 1. INTRODUCTION INTO LINGUISTICS. MODERN TERMS AND CONCEPTS

1.1. The emergence of modern linguistics

Human language is a systematic use of speech sounds, signs, and written symbols for communication among people. It is a complicated system, which can be analyzed on different levels and from various points of view. Modern linguists adopt different perspectives on language depending on the goals of their research. Modern linguistics encompasses a wide range of component disciplines, which announce their commitment to the serious study of language. XX century linguistics can be divided into three main phases (fig. 1):

- » phase of emergence
- » phase of expansion
- » phase of diversification

At the beginning of the 20th century a Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) brought about a sea-change in linguistics. He is claimed to be one of the most highly respected scholars, the ‘founding father’ of modern linguistics, and the ‘founder of structuralism’.

Saussure moved into philological studies from physics and chemistry. He spent some time studying and researching in Leipzig with Karl Brugmann¹, and also in Berlin, where he became familiar with Wilhelm von Humboldt's² ideas on the inner form of language and formed a more critical stance towards the positivist programme envisaged by the Neogrammarians (August Leskien, Karl Brugmann). In 1906–1907 Saussure had a major academic career behind him. He gave a series of lectures in his home university of Geneva, to which he had returned in 1891 after ten years as a professor in Paris. He repeated the course twice more, ending in 1911.

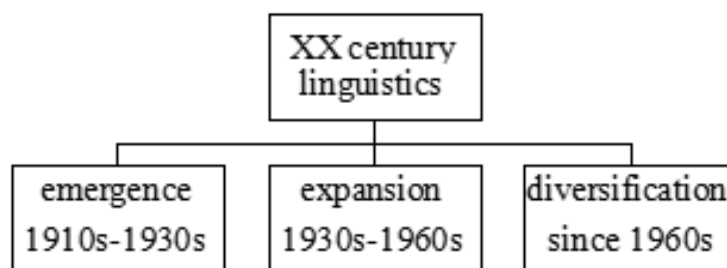


Fig. 1. Three phases of development in 20th century linguistics

¹ Karl Brugmann (1849–1919) — the chief representatives of the Neogrammarian movement who asserted the inviolability of phonetic laws, and adhered to strict research methodology.

² Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767–1835) — a German language scholar, philosopher, diplomat, educational reformer who contended that language is an activity the character and structure of which express the culture and individuality of the speaker.

Saussure's seminal ideas were compiled in the famous *Cours de linguistique générale*, a collection of his lectures in Geneva. The book was based on Saussure's own and his students' notes and published in 1916 by Charles Bally³ and Albert Sechehaye⁴ after Saussure's death in 1913. In the opening chapter, he put special emphasis that a language should not be seen «as an organism developing of its own accord but... as a product of the collective mind of a linguistic community».

His lectures transformed the 19th century historical and comparative philology into the 20th century discipline of structural linguistics. The most consequential 'structuralist' claim made by Saussure is that language is a socially shared system of signs. This system is considered more important than its parts and defined by the relations between its components. The elements in the system have no significance outside it and derive their significance exclusively from the relations to other elements. The basic *principles* underlying Saussure's structural linguistics are the following:

- » linguistics is the scientific study of language for its own sake;
- » linguistics is not prescriptive;
- » spoken language is the primary object of study;
- » linguistics is an autonomous discipline;
- » synchronic studies of language take precedence over diachronic studies;
- » all languages are equal;
- » paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of linguistic units.

The movement continuing the tradition of Saussurean structuralism is known as functionalism (see 1.4.3). The main claim of this approach is that language is a system of functionally related units. The phonological, grammatical, and semantic structures of a language are determined by the functions that they have to perform. Saussure's *Cours* had little to say about the practical description of particular languages. It was partly to fill this gap that the *Linguistic Circle of Prague* was founded in 1926. It included major figures in the subsequent history such as Roman Jakobson⁵ and Nikolai Trubetzkoy⁶. Their best-known work is Trubetzkoy's *Principles of Phonology*. It presents an account of phonology published posthumously in Prague in 1939. Following Saussure, Trubetzkoy was the first to distinguish systematically between *phonetics* (*parole*) and *phonology* (*langue*). He placed the distinction in a functional context: «phonology of necessity is concerned with the linguistic function of the sounds of language, while phonetics deals with their phenomenistic aspect

³ Charles Bally (1865–1947) — a Swiss linguist from the Geneva School. He is regarded as the founding-father of linguistic theories of style and much honored for his theories of phraseology.

⁴ Albert Sechehaye (1870–1946) — a Swiss linguist, who studied at the University of Geneva under Ferdinand de Saussure.

⁵ Roman Jakobson (1896–1982) — a Russian born American linguist and Slavic- language scholar, a principal founder of the European movement in structural linguistics known as the Prague school.

⁶ Nikolai Trubetzkoy (1890–1938) — a Slavic linguist at the centre of the Prague school of linguistics, noted as the author of its most important work on phonology.

without regard to function». While phonetics describes the ‘physical’ qualities of actual speech, phonology is interested in those features of sounds which are distinctive in the sense that they differentiate meanings. As a consequence, their main concern is with the distinctive features of phonemes, i. e. the smallest meaning-differentiating units of a language. In 1928, with their colleague of the Prague school Sergei Karcevskij⁷, they announced a hypothesis that *phonemes* are complexes of binary features, such as voiced/unvoiced and aspirated/unaspirated.

Of particular importance is their formulation of the *functional sentence perspective* — a theory that analyses utterances in terms of the information they express. It aimed at identifying systematic relationships between linguistic units and features of text structure. The theory was specifically concerned with the way in which successive sentences in texts are constructed in order to reflect the developing pattern of information: what is ‘new information’ (rheme) in one sentence, for instance, becomes ‘given information’ (theme) in a later one and each language has its own way of signaling these relationships.

The beginnings of American linguistics

Modern linguistics can be said to have emerged in the same year on both sides of the Atlantic. In 1911 (Saussure gave his final lecture series at Geneva) the first part of the official *Handbook of American Indian Languages* was published in Washington. The Introduction written by Franz Boas⁸ came to be seen as a major milestone for linguistics in the United States. Franz Boas was a German-born American anthropologist, the founder of the culture-centred school of American anthropology that became dominant in the 20th century. Boas was a specialist in North American Indian cultures and languages. The Amerindian project was a large-scale study designed to cover the whole field before many of the languages involved became extinct. The basic message of his famous *Introduction* was: respect for the data and the generalizations that could be drawn from it, provided the proper procedures were followed in a disciplined manner.

Boas was the teacher of Edward Sapir⁹ who was also an anthropologist with a great interest in language. In his book *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech* (1921), Sapir made the statement on the new approach to language study, introducing for the first time the notion of *formal linguistic patterning*. He emphasized the independence of form and function: «we cannot but conclude that linguistic form may and should be studied as types of patterning, apart from the associated functions» [Sapir 1921: 60].

⁷ Sergei Karcevskij (1884–1955) — Russian linguist who, with Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye, belonged to the first generation of Saussure’s disciples in Geneva.

⁸ Franz Boas (1858–1942) — a German-born American anthropologist, the founder of the relativistic, culture-centered school of American anthropology.

⁹ Edward Sapir (1884–1939) — one of the foremost American linguists and anthropologists, widely known for his contributions to the study of North American Indian languages, a founder of ethnolinguistics.

Sapir was a colleague of Leonard Bloomfield¹⁰, another scholar who could claim expertise in linguistic science of this period. He led the development of structural linguistics in the United States during the 1930s and the 1940s. His influential textbook *Language* (1933) presented a comprehensive description of American structural linguistics. He introduced the term 'linguistics', which the Americans accepted without difficulty. Bloomfield's approach to linguistics was characterized by its emphasis on the scientific basis of linguistics, adherence to behaviorism, and emphasis on formal procedures for the analysis of linguistic data. Although Boas and Bloomfield published their early work before Saussure, their general approach was consistent with the above mentioned principles.

The first signs of successful institutionalization of linguistics appeared soon. The Linguistic Society of America was inaugurated in December 1924, with its 'house journal' *Language* appearing the following year. While American priorities were mainly practical, European linguistics put more emphasis on theory.

The beginnings of British linguistics

For centuries the English have always been good at two linguistic things: *phonetics* and *lexicography*. Phonetics had considerable potential for practical application in language pedagogy, medicine, the new technology of sound recording (Thomas Edison's phonograph, 1877). Lexicography benefited from the nineteenth-century obsession with history, which provided the basis for the project that dominated England as the American Indian project dominated America, namely the

Oxford English Dictionary.

Henry Sweet¹¹ was a man who 'taught phonetics to Europe'. Sweet studied at the University of Heidelberg in 1864 and, beginning in 1869, at Oxford University. In 1901 he became a lecturer of phonetics at Oxford. He made a major contribution to the elaboration of a theory of phonology and also worked on the typology of the phonological systems of the world's languages. His principal works dealt with phonetics, English and German philology, and Old English dialectology.

He passed the phonetics torch to Daniel Jones¹², who was born in London and educated at University College School and Cambridge University. His entire career was spent at University College London, where in 1912 he founded the first British university phonetics department. He was the leading British phonetician during the first half of the XX century and had a profound effect on the study of pronunciation. Jones also defined a socially determined type of British English (labeled «Received Pronunciation» in the 1920s) which is used as a standard for phonetic description and as a model for non-native learners. He also produced notable lexicographical work in the form of pronunciation dictionaries.

¹⁰ Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949) — an American linguist who determined the subsequent course of linguistics in the United States.

¹¹ Henry Sweet (1845–1912) — an English phonetician and language scholar, who laid some of the foundations for the academic study of Old English.

¹² Daniel Jones (1881–1967) — a British phonetician, the head of the department of phonetics at University College London.

LECTURE 2: Cognitive Linguistics. Concepts and linguistic analysis

Cognitive linguistics started as a new linguistic paradigm in the late 1970s. In contrast to structuralist and generative predecessors, it sees language, not as an independent, self-sufficient system, but as a faculty integrated with other cognitive abilities such as perception, memory, attention, imagination, emotion, reasoning, etc. [Malmkjær 2010: 61].

Linguistic meaning is not an autonomous system in the mind, but part and parcel of our conceptual world. Cognitive linguistics adopts an *experientialist realism* and a *phenomenologist* outlook as its philosophical basis. It means that all individuals have access to the world by their bodily experiences of that world (experientialism), and their embodied relation to the world including other humans is simultaneously a conscious and intentional one (phenomenology). People want to share information with others about what goes on in their minds. This intention can be realized in communication by means of *indexical*, *iconic* and *symbolic signs*. A sign can be generally defined as a form which stands for something else, which we understand as its meaning. The relation between a sign and its meaning can be of three different kinds:

Indexical signs, or **indices** point to something in their immediate vicinity, as is suggested by the etymology of the Latin word *index* ‘pointing finger’. E.g. *raising one’s eyebrows*, or *furrowing one’s brows* are indexical sign pointing to a person’s emotional states of surprise or anger.

Iconic signs, or **icons** (from Greek *eikon* ‘replica’) provide images of what they stand for. They provide a visual, auditory or other perceptual image of the thing they stand for. An **icon** is similar to the thing it represents (road signs, e. g. *work on road*).

Symbolic signs, or **symbols** involve a purely conventional relationship between the form of the sign and its meaning. E.g.

- the traffic sign of an inverted triangle is one such symbol, it has the meaning «give right of way». By general consent, people have
- «agreed» upon the pairing of a particular form with a particular meaning (e. g. the euro sign, the rouble sign, the pound sign, etc.).

Three types of signs reflect general principles of coping with forms and meanings (Fig. 5).

The principles of indexicality, iconicity and symbolicity underlie the structuring of language. Almost all language is symbolic as the relationship between words and their meanings is not based on contiguity or similarity, but on convention.

The principle of indexicality in language

People can «point» to things in their scope of attention. People consider themselves to be at the centre of the universe. Everything around is seen from this point of view. When people speak, their position in space and time serves as the reference point for the location of other entities in space and time. This *egocentric* view of the world also shows in our use of language.

Words such as *here, there, now, then, today, tomorrow, this, that, come, go* as well as the personal pronouns *I, you, we* are described as **deictic expressions**. Deictic expressions (from Greek *deiktis* ‘show’) relate to the speaking *ego*, who imposes his perspective on the world. The ego serves as the ‘deictic centre’ for locating things in space. Cf.: *The girl is in front of me*.

The principle of iconicity in language

People conceive a similarity between a form of language and the thing it stands for. E.g. *the name of a bird* may imitate the sounds it seems to make, i. e. *cuckoo*. Iconicity manifests itself in **three sub-principles**, i. e. those of linguistic expressions related to *sequential order, distance* and *quantity*.

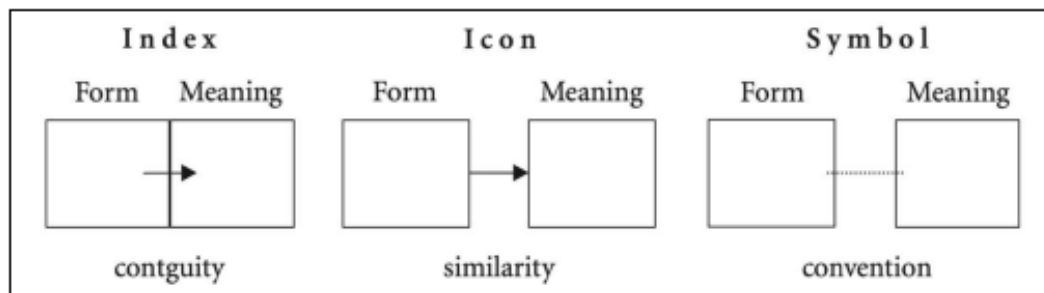


Fig. 5. Links in the three types of signs

(a) **The principle of sequential order (Sequential-order iconicity)** is a phenomenon of both temporal events and the linear arrangement of elements in a linguistic construction.

In its simplest manifestation, it determines the order of two or more clauses as in Julius Caesar's historic words, *Veni, vidi, vici* — '*I came, I saw, I conquered*'. By changing the linear arrangement of the co-ordinated clauses, we automatically get a different sequence of events. Cf.:

- a. *Lora got married and had a baby.*
- b. *Lora had a baby and got married.*

The conjunction *and* itself does not tell us anything about the sequence of events. It is only due to the arrangement of the clauses that the natural order of the events is mirrored.

Sequential-order iconicity is also found within the structure of a sentence. Thus, the sentences below have the same words but convey different meanings because of the different order of the adjective *blue*. Cf.:

- a. *Paul painted the blue door.*
- b. *Paul painted the door blue.*

In (a), the door was already blue and then Paul painted it over again. It is not known what colour the door was painted by Paul. In (b), we do not know the original colour of the door but we know that it came out blue.

The iconic principle also determines the sequential order of the elements in ‘binary’ expressions which reflect temporal succession: *now and then, now and again, now or never, sooner or later, day and night, law and order, out and about*. All these binary expressions are irreversible. Another evidence of this iconic principle is also found in the word order of subject, verb and object in a sentence (*subject — predicate — object* in statements).

(b) **The principle of distance** accounts for the fact that things which belong together conceptually tend to be put together linguistically, and things that do not belong together are put at a distance. Cf.:

- a. *A noisy **group** **was** hanging around the bar.*
- b. *A **group** of noisy youngsters **were** hanging around the bar.*

In (a), the singular noun *group* agrees with the singular verb. In (b), the noun *group* is put at some distance from the verb, which agrees with the noun *youngsters* adjacent to it.

The principle of distance also accounts for the types of subordinate clauses following the verb of a main clause. Cf.:

- a. *I made **her** leave.*
- b. *I wanted **her to** leave.*
- c. *I hoped **that she would** leave.*

In (a), the subject *I* has direct influence on the other person and there is minimal distance between the verbs. In (b), the subject’s desire may have some indirect impact

on the person and the distance between the verbs is greater. In (c), there is no impact on the other person and the distance between the verbs is greatest.

(c) **The principle of quantity** accounts for the tendency to associate more form with more meaning and less form with less meaning.

By stretching the *o*-sound of *long* as in *That's a loooooong story* we iconically express the idea of an «*extremely long*» story. Reduplication is another way of expressing the idea of «more quantity». E.g. in the pidgin language Tok Pisin, *cow-cow* means 'cows', *wheel-wheel* means 'bicycle'.

The quantity principle also shows up in politeness strategies, according to the motto «*being polite is saying a bit more*». The increasing quantities of language forms are meant to convey increasing respect for the hearer. Cf.: *No smoking* → *Don't smoke, will you?* → *Would you mind not smoking here, please*.

The quantity principle also implies that less meaning requires less form. Cf.:

- a. *Valentine said that he was short of money and so did his girl-friend.*
- b. *Valentine said that he was short of money and his girl-friend said that she was short of money, too.*

The form *so did* in (a) replaces the whole verbal expression following the subject *girl-friend*. If such redundant sentences are used as in (b), they express the same idea as the shorter form, but on top of that they tend to express emphasis, irony or a negative attitude.

The principle of symbolicity in language

It refers to the conventional pairing of form and meaning. It is typically found in the word stock of a language. The concept of 'house' is rendered as *house* in English, *Haus* in German, *huis* in Dutch, *casa* in Italian and Spanish, *maison* in French, *talo* in Finnish, *dom* in Russian.

The meaning of symbolic signs was called *arbitrary* by Ferdinand de Saussure. The notion of arbitrariness holds true for most of the simple words of a language, but if we look at the whole range of new words or new senses of existing words, we find that almost all of them are motivated. As a linguistic term, motivation refers to non-arbitrary links between a form and the meaning of linguistic expressions.

The semiotic framework developed above has concentrated on the link between the form and meaning of signs as they are realized in words. Language resides in the minds of the speakers. Therefore, in order to understand the nature of language, we also have to look at our conceptual world and how it has shaped the signs.

In 1990, George Lakoff¹³ argued that the cognitive linguistics enterprise is characterized by two key commitments:

(1) **Generalization Commitment** — a commitment to the characterization of general principles that are responsible for all aspects of human language.

It is opposed to the formal approach to the study of language. Language is separated into ‘modules’ such as phonology (sound), semantics (word and sentence meaning), pragmatics (meaning in discourse context), morphology (word structure), syntax (sentence structure). Cognitive linguists disagree that these ‘modules’ of language are organized in significantly divergent ways. They want to find out whether there are common structuring principles that hold across different aspects of language and what they are. They make attempts to identify principles that are true for the different language components, i. e. phonology, morphology, syntax.

For example, cognitive linguists argue that *polysemy* (when a single linguistic unit exhibits multiple distinct yet related meanings) is not restricted to word meaning but is a fundamental feature of human language. They argue that polysemy reveals important commonalities between lexical, morphological and syntactic organization. **Polysemy in the lexicon** can be demonstrated on the example of the preposition *over*. Cf.:

- » *The picture is over the sofa.* ABOVE
- » *The picture is over the hole.* COVERING
- » *The ball is over the wall.* ON-THE-OTHER-SIDE-OF
- » *The government handed over power.* TRANSFER
- » *She has a strange power over me.* CONTROL

These sentences illustrate various senses of *over*. While each is distinct, they can all be related to one another. They all derive from a central ‘ABOVE’ meaning. Just as words like *over* exhibit polysemy, so do morphological categories. Cf.:

Polysemy in morphology: agentive *-er* suffix in the words *teacher*, *villager*, *toaster*, *best-seller*.

In each example the *-er* suffix adds a slightly different meaning. In *teacher*, it conveys a human AGENT who carries out the action designated by the verb. In *villager*, *-er* relates to a person who lives in a particular place (village). In *toaster*, *-er* relates to an artefact that has the capacity designated by the verb. In *best-seller*, *-er* relates to a particular quality associated with a type of artefact. Despite the differences, these senses are related in terms of functional ability or attribute: the ability to teach; the ‘ability’ to toast; the attribute of selling well; and the attribute of dwelling in a specific location. This demonstrates the capacity of morphological categories to exhibit polysemy.

(2) **Cognitive Commitment** represents the view that principles of linguistic structure should reflect what is known about human cognition from other disciplines

¹³ George Philip Lakoff (born 1941) — an American cognitive linguist and philosopher, best known for his thesis that people’s lives are significantly influenced by the conceptual metaphors they use to explain complex phenomena.

(philosophy, psychology, artificial intelligence, neuroscience). Cognitive linguists reject the claim that there is a distinct language module, which asserts that linguistic structure and organisation are distinct from other aspects of cognition. They posit that language and linguistic organization reflect general cognitive principles rather than cognitive principles that are specific to language.

To prove that linguistic organisation reflects more general cognitive function, Vyvyan Evans¹⁴ and Melanie Green¹⁵ consider some aspects of the linguistic profiling of **attention** as a general cognitive ability of a human being.

They prove that language provides ways of directing attention to certain aspects of the scene. This general ability, manifest in language, is called *profiling*. They show that grammatical constructions serve to profile different aspects of a given scene. For example, given a scene in which *a boy kicks over a vase* causing it to smash, different aspects of the scene can be linguistically profiled (Table 3).

Table 3

Grammatical constructions and aspects of profiling

Grammatical constructions	Aspects of profiling
The boy kicks over the vase	The AGENT is profiled (active sentence)
The vase is kicked over	The PATIENT is profiled (passive sentence)
The vase smashes into bits	Profiles the change in the state of the vase
The vase is in bits	The state is IN BITS

Each of the mentioned above constructions, ACTIVE, PASSIVE, SUBJECT-VERB-COMPLEMENT, SUBJECT-COPULA-COMPLEMENT, is specialized for profiling a particular aspect of an action chain. The examples in Table 3 demonstrate how linguistic organisation reflects a more general cognitive ability: attention.

LECTURE 3. LINGUACULTUROLOGY

Implicature is information which is implied in a statement but cannot be derived from applying logical inferencing techniques to it. The term *implicature* goes back to Herbert Paul Grice, as laid down in his seminal article ‘Logic and Conversation’. An implicature is what is suggested but not formally expressed (an additional conveyed meaning). The recipient must either understand that part of the statement has a special meaning or take context into account in order to decode the implicature. Cf.:

¹⁴ Vyvyan Evans (born 1968) — a British cognitive linguist, digital communication technologist, popular science author, science fiction author and public intellectual.

¹⁵ Melanie Green (born 1974) — a Professor and Chair of the Department of Communication at the University at Buffalo, USA. Her work has focused on persuasion and belief change.

John: *I've made a strawberry flan.*

Fanny: *I had strawberries for breakfast, dear.*

One might make the implicature that Fanny does not want to eat John's strawberry flan, because it is unusual to eat the same meal twice in one day. And Fanny seems to be using this as an excuse, rather than saying something like '*How lovely, can I have a big slice*' [Baker & Ellece 2011].

Several types of implicature are distinguished. Grice distinguished a *conventional* implicature and a *conversational* implicature. They both convey an additional level of meaning, beyond the semantic meaning of the words uttered. They differ in that in the case of conventional implicature the same implicature is always conveyed, regardless of context. In the case of conversational implicature, what is implied varies according to the context of utterance [Thomas 2013].

Conventional implicature. A conventional implicature is not dependent on the conversation, but is inherent to the lexical item or syntactic structure that gives rise to the implicature. There are comparatively few examples of conventional implicatures: *but, even, therefore, yet, for*. Cf.: *She plays chess well, **for** a girl.*

Consider another example: *She was cursed with a stammer, unmarried **but** far from stupid.* Although it is not actually asserted that unmarried people (or people who stammer) are stupid, the word *but* definitely implies that this is the case. The word *but* carries the implicature that what follows will run counter to expectations. This sense of the word *but* always carries this implicature, regardless of the context. Cf.: *My friends were poor, **but** honest; She is small, **but** perfectly formed.*

Conversational implicature. According to H. P. Grice, implicature is speaker meaning which comes about because of the cooperative principle. Conversational implicature comes in two ways, *generalized conversational implicature* and *particularized conversational implicature*. Cf.:

Speaker A: *What time is it?*

Speaker B: *Some of the guests are already leaving.*

Generalized conversational implicature: '*Not all of the guests are already leaving.*' Relative *context-independence* is the most prominent property of it. The generalized conversational implicatures are normally associated with certain linguistic forms. For example, if someone utters *Peter is meeting **a woman** this evening* it is, because of the indefinite article, standardly implicated that the woman is not his wife or close relative.

Particularized conversational implicature: '*It must be late.*' In contrast to the first type, these implicatures are highly *context-dependent*. They are not consistently associated with any linguistic form.

Culture-specific implicature. Cultural assumptions are considered crucial in determining speaker's meaning. For example, if two Chinese women are looking at the dessert display in a French restaurant, and one says to the other, '*That tart is not too sweet,*' she almost certainly intends this comment as praise of the tart. She might intend to implicate that her dinner partner should order a tart. This speaker's meaning

arises from the fact that it is common knowledge among Chinese people that most of them find western desserts too sweet. Among some other groups, the same comment could be interpreted as a criticism, rather than a compliment.

Theories of politeness

Politeness theory is concerned with how people establish and maintain social cohesion by using various verbal and nonverbal strategies or avoiding talk that may potentially cause conflict and social disharmony. Politeness theory could almost be seen as a sub-discipline of pragmatics. People are operating with different definitions of 'politeness'.

The concept of politeness

Since the late 1970s the vast literature has built up on politeness. But the term *politeness* has caused much misunderstanding. Under the heading of *politeness*, people have discussed five sets of phenomena:

Politeness as a real-world goal. Politeness is interpreted as a genuine desire to be pleasant to others. It has no place within pragmatics, because people have no access to the speakers' real motivation for speaking as they do. Discussions as to whether one group of people is 'politer' than another are ultimately futile. Linguists have access only to what speakers say and to how their hearers react. One may observe that the Chinese place more emphasis in their talk on the needs of the group rather than those of the individual. But we cannot conclude that they are genuinely more altruistic than other communities.

Deference. It is frequently equated with politeness, particularly in discussions of Japanese. Deference is the opposite of familiarity. It refers to the respect people show to other people by virtue of their higher status, greater age, etc. Politeness is a more general matter of showing consideration to others. Both deference and politeness can be manifested through social behaviour as well as by linguistic means:

- (a) show deference by standing up when a person of superior status enters a room;
- (b) show politeness by holding a door open to allow someone to pass through.

Deference is built into the grammar of languages such as Korean and Japanese. It is also found in the grammar of those languages which have a 'T/V system', that is languages such as French, German, Russian in which there is a choice of second person pronoun: *tu/vous*, *du/Sie*, *ты/вы*. In other words, speakers of languages which make the T/V distinction are obliged to signal either respect or familiarity towards their interlocutor. In English, no deference forms remain. Exceptions are address forms (*Doctor*, *Professor*, etc.) and the use of 'honorifics' such as *Sir*, *Madam*, which may be used to indicate the status of the interactants.

Register. It is the way in which the language people speak or write varies according to the type of situation. Certain situations (e. g. formal meetings) require more formal language use. Register has little to do with politeness and little connection with pragmatics, since we have no real choice about whether or not to use

formal language in formal situations. Like deference, register is primarily a sociolinguistic phenomenon: a description of the linguistic forms which generally occur in a particular situation. Choice of register has little to do with the strategic use of language and it only becomes of interest to the pragmaticist if a speaker deliberately uses unexpected forms in order to change the situation.

Politeness as a surface level phenomenon. Much early work in the area of politeness focused on utterance level realizations. In 1978, Bruce Fraser¹⁶ conducted an experiment. He asked informants to rate for politeness various forms of request for which no context was supplied: *would you X?*; *could you X?*; *can you X?*; *do X!* These studies found that members of a community showed a very high level of agreement as to which linguistic forms were most polite. In general, it was found that the more grammatically complex or elaborate the strategy, the more highly it was rated for politeness. *I wonder if I might ask you to X?* would be counted as ‘more polite’ than: *Please X!* The study of this type shows there are two reasons why it is unsafe to equate surface linguistic forms with politeness:

1) there is a pragmatics/sociolinguistics divide: listing the linguistic forms which can be used to perform a speech act in a given language is *not pragmatics*. These are sociolinguistic phenomena. It only becomes pragmatics when we look at how a particular form is used strategically in order to achieve the speaker’s goal. ‘Doing’ pragmatics crucially requires context;

2) as soon as we put a speech act in context, we can see that there is no necessary connection between the linguistic form and the politeness of a speech act. E.g.: *A married couple are trying to decide on a restaurant. The husband says: ‘You choose.’* In this case we have a direct imperative, but it would normally be seen as perfectly polite. Moreover, some speech acts seem almost *inherently impolite*. For example, there is no polite way asking someone to stop picking their nose. Regardless of the elaborateness of the linguistic form, no matter how you hedge it about, it is always offensive.

Thus, one cannot assess politeness reliably out of context. It is not the linguistic form alone which renders the speech act polite or impolite, but the linguistic form together with the context of utterance and the relationship between the speaker and the hearer.

1. Politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon. Works in politeness theory, notably those of Geoffrey Leech¹⁷, Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson have focused on politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon. In these writings, politeness is interpreted as a strategy employed by a speaker to achieve a variety of goals.

¹⁶ Bruce Fraser (born 1938) — a Professor of Linguistics and Education at Boston University. His research interests lie in pragmatics, forensic linguistics, and discourse analysis.

¹⁷ Geoffrey Leech (1936–2014) — a specialist in English language and linguistics, his main academic interests were English grammar, corpus linguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, and semantics.

Pragmatic approaches to the study of politeness began to appear in the mid-1970s. It was Robin Lakoff¹⁸ who provided a pioneering work by linking politeness to Grice's Cooperative Principle to explain why speakers do not always conform to maxims. Pragmatic approaches focus on politeness as a strategy (strategies) employed by speakers to promote or maintain harmonious relations.

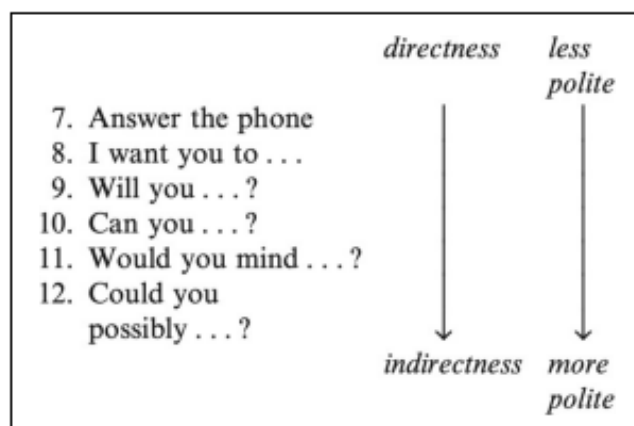


Fig. 2. Cost-benefit scale and its relationship to the scale of politeness

The conversational maxim approach to politeness by Geoffrey Leech

Geoffrey Leech sees politeness as crucial in explaining 'why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean'. He invokes politeness in his explanation of indirectness in linguistic interaction [Leech 1983]. The theory of politeness he presents involves reference to the notions of *cost* and *benefit* (Fig. 2), and *directness* and *indirectness* (Fig. 3).

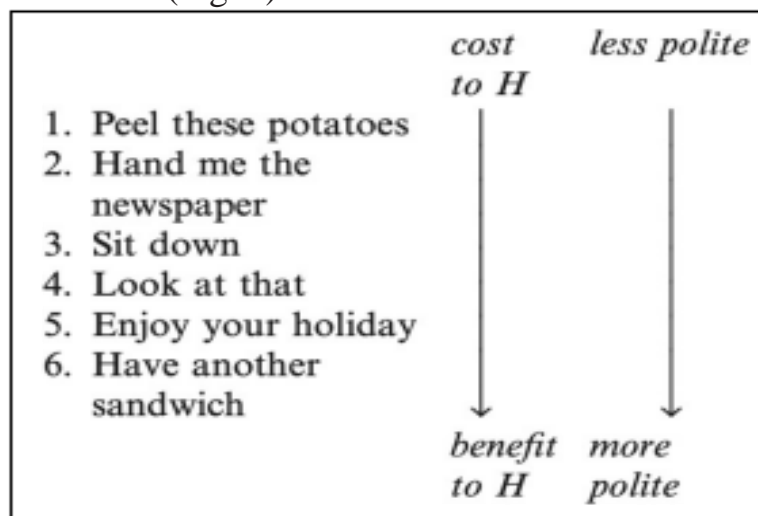


Fig. 3. Directness-indirectness scale and its relationship to the scale of politeness

Fig. 2 illustrates that the level of impoliteness of an utterance in the imperative form increases in tandem with the inconvenience that acting on it would impose on

¹⁸ Robin Lakoff (born 1942) — was a professor of linguistics at the University of California, and her most famous work was the subject of women's language where she believed women's speech can be distinguished in certain features.

the hearer. It decreases in tandem with the amount of benefit a hearer might derive from acting on it. It is possible to classify the utterances at the top of the scale (most impolite) as orders and those lower down as suggestions, benedictions and offers.

Directness-indirectness scale has more to do with the form of an expression, since the propositional content can remain stable while the degree of politeness varies with the form of expression.

Leech introduced two concepts which are relevant for the discussion of pragmatic approaches to politeness: *ambivalence* and *pragmatic principles*. If an utterance is ambivalent, it has more than one potential pragmatic force. By employing an ambivalent utterance it is possible to convey messages which the hearer is liable to find disagreeable without causing undue offence. The following example illustrates this in relation to a very expensive gourmet restaurant. Cf.:

If you want to enjoy the full flavor of your food and drink you will, naturally, not smoke during this meal. Moreover, if you did smoke you would also be impairing the enjoyment of other guests.

The management of the restaurant obviously thought it inappropriate simply to put up ‘*No smoking*’ signs. Instead, it was left to the guests to decide for themselves whether they were being asked or ordered not to smoke.

Leech introduced the *Politeness Principle* which runs as follows: **Minimize the expression of impolite beliefs; Maximize the expression of polite beliefs**. He sees this principle as being of the same status as Grice’s Cooperative Principle. Leech introduces a number of maxims which stand in the same relationship to the Politeness Principle as Grice’s maxims stand to the Cooperative Principle. According to Leech, these maxims are necessary in order to ‘*explain the relationship between sense and force in human conversation*’.

1. The Tact maxim: *minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other; maximize the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to other*. If something is perceived as being to the hearer’s benefit, X can be expressed politely without employing indirectness. Cf.: *Have a chocolate!* However, if X is seen as being ‘costly’ to the hearer, greater indirectness may be required. Cf.: *Could I have one of your sandwiches?* People can use ‘minimizers’ to reduce the implied cost to the hearer. Cf.: *Just call him later and ...; Hang on a second!; I’ve got a bit of a problem.*

2. The Generosity maxim: *minimize the expression of benefit to self; maximize the expression of cost to self*. The Generosity maxim explains why it is alright to say: *You must come and have dinner with us*. The importance is attached to the linguistic expression of generosity. There is no suggestion that members of one culture are more generous than members of another.

3. The Approbation maxim: *Minimize the expression of beliefs which express dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of other*. It is normal to say: *I enjoyed your lecture*. If you did not enjoy it, you would either keep quiet about it or convey the fact more indirectly. The ‘other’ may not be the person directly addressed, but someone or something dear to him or her. It is

unacceptable to say *Are these talentless children yours?*

4. The Modesty maxim: *Minimize the expression of praise of self; maximize the expression of dispraise of self.* This maxim applies differentially in different cultures. In Japan, the Modesty Maxim is more powerful than it is in English-speaking societies, where it would be more polite to accept a compliment ‘graciously’ (e. g. by thanking the speaker) rather than deny it.

5. The Agreement maxim: *Minimize the expression of disagreement between self and other; maximize the expression of agreement between self and other.* It doesn’t mean that people avoid disagreeing with one another. They are much more direct in expressing their agreement, than disagreement.

6. The Pollyanna Principle. Pollyanna is the heroine of Eleanor H. Porter’s novel. She is a child who always looks on the bright side of life. The observance of the Pollyanna Principle leads people to put the best possible gloss on what they have to say. For example, the two speakers were discussing the bad impression which visitors would gain because of the appalling weather on a festive occasion:

A: *They’re not exactly seeing the place at its best!*

B: *Well, at least it’s not snowing.*

The major problem with the Leech’s approach is that there appears to be no motivated way of restricting the number of maxims. In theory, it would be possible to produce a new maxim to explain every tiny perceived regularity in language use.

The face-management approach by Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson

Erving Goffman¹⁹ introduced the concept of *face* in 1955. According to him, face is the positive public image people seek to establish in social interactions. As Goffman was a sociologist, he focused on the interaction between individuals and the social world. The term *face* is used in the sense of ‘reputation’ or ‘good name’. Cf. the expression *to save face* (avoid humiliation or embarrassment, preserve dignity). Sociolinguists, Penelope Brown²⁰ and Stephen Levinson²¹ used

Goffman’s face theory as a foundation for explaining human interactions that revolved around being polite. In developing politeness theory they argued that people have two faces — positive and negative. *Positive face* is based on a desire for approval and acceptance by others. *Negative face* involves a person’s desire to remain autonomous and not be imposed on. The two aspects of face may be viewed as pulling in opposite directions. Positive face promotes sociability and contact with others, and negative face is satisfied through avoidance of contact. The main aspects of the Face theory are illustrated in Fig. 4.

¹⁹ Erving Goffman (1922–1982) — a Canadian-born sociologist, social psychologist, and writer, considered by some «the most influential American sociologist of the twentieth century».

²⁰ Penelope Brown (born 1944) — an American anthropological linguist who has studied a number of aspects of cross-linguistic, sociolinguistic, and cross-cultural studies of language and cognition.

²¹ Stephen Levinson (born 1947) — a British social scientist, known for his studies of the relations between culture, language and cognition.

Within politeness theory face is best understood as every individual's feeling of self-worth or self-image. This image can be damaged. A **face-threatening act** involves any situation or event which could alter (negatively) the maintenance of our face.

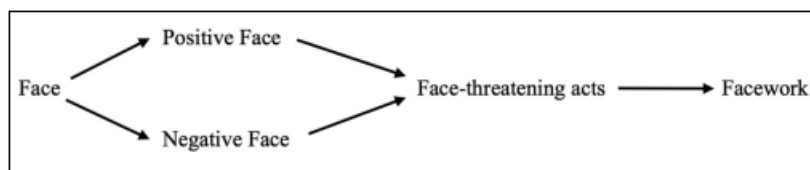


Fig. 4. Visualization of Face Theory

Facework is any communicative strategy that is used to manage face during interactions. Facework can be preventive (e. g. helping to avoid face-threatening acts) or restorative (helping to restore face that has been lost).

Face Theory in a nutshell

» people present a particular face when interacting with other people. Face can vary depending upon the situation and relationship;

» people have a positive face and a negative face;

» face-threatening acts occur which cause a loss of face leading to the use of facework strategies to repair and restore our face.

Face-threatening acts

Sometimes the face of a person is challenged in some way. According to P. Brown and S. Levinson, certain illocutionary acts are liable to damage or threaten another person's face. Such acts are known as *face-threatening acts*. One way of knowing people's faces have been threatened is by their emotional reactions. Face threats usually produce feelings of embarrassment, shame, humiliation, agitation, confusion, defensiveness.

Face-threatening acts can be toward a positive face and/or a negative face, and caused by acts people engage in or the acts of others toward them. Brown and Levinson created an extensive list of various communication acts that can cause such face threat (see Table).

Table 2

Examples of face-threatening acts

Types of threats	Actions by others that threaten our face	Actions we take that threaten our own face
Threatens Positive Face	Complaints and insults Criticisms or Disapproval Disagreeing Asking for clarification Evaluations	Apologies and confessions Accepting a compliment Misunderstanding/Requesting clarification Unintended emotional action

		(laugh) Unintended physical action (burp)
Threatens Negative Face	Orders and requests Advice and suggestions Threats and warnings Reminders Calling in a debt	Accepting an offer Accepting thanks Making a promise or offer Behavior that threatens a relationship Do an unrequested favor

Facework reflects the process of managing threats to face. There are times where threatening our own or another person's face is inevitable. When teachers call on a student to answer a question, they are threatening their negative (autonomy) face. The aim of facework is to help maintain face and relationship. By supporting another person's face, we help to foster or enhance a given relationship. Numerous strategies are utilized in facework:

1. Strategies people use to manage threats to other people's faces

Discretion. Ignoring those things which might embarrass the positive claims made by others. Example: a person is at a restaurant having dinner with his friends when one of them burps. In being discrete, the person simply continues the conversation ignoring the burp.

Circumlocutions and deceptions. Example: the girl is getting ready for a big date and asks her friend's opinion about the clothes she is wearing. The addressee thinks the clothes make her friend look awful. But she doesn't want to threaten her face, so she replies: *That's a good looking outfit. It makes you look young and spirited.* Making an ambiguous and indirect statement such as this is an example of circumlocution and perhaps deception. The person lies to the friend to avoid hurting their feelings (threatening the face).

Joking. Example: one might deliver a threatening message in a joking manner and thus help to reduce face threat.

Explanation. Example: sometimes students come to their teachers before class to let them know they have to leave early and explain why. Had they not, the teachers might interpret their departures as negative reactions to something said or to the teaching, thus causing us loss of face.

Approbation. Example: it involves praising a person's general abilities and recalling their particular successes to minimize blame or offset specific inabilities or failures.

Solidarity. Example: one might convey how much they like your friend and identify things your friend has in common with the group. *Tact.* Example: when a person threatens another person's negative face by making a request or imposing on him, tact can be employed. Knowing it's long past the time when your partner was supposed to do the task, you apply a tactful strategy by saying, «*How about you and I work together on doing it together?*»

2. Strategies people use to manage threats to their own faces

Accepting and correcting. For this strategy, people take on responsibility for the threatening event and commit to correcting it. While they lose face by admitting to a behavior that causes them to lose some face, they regain face by the admission and plan to do something about it.

Ignoring and denying. Acting as though nothing is wrong and as though the face has not been threatened.

Diminishing. Among the ways the face threat can be diminished are by claiming the face-threat or failure was: an unintentional act, a meaningless event, a joke, not to be taken seriously, or unavoidable because of external circumstances (*Heavy traffic made me late*).

Apology and/or compensation. Offering an apology and/or compensation is a way of reducing the loss of face. If one, having a face of being on-time, is late, he can pick up a friend, apologize and offer to pay for dinner.

Politeness theory has been criticized for not really being universally applicable because of limited validity in non-western cultures. In essence, the way politeness is managed in Japan or Thailand does not match that of the United States or the United Kingdom.

AMALIY MASHG'ULOT MATERIALLARI

Over the last thirty years Corpus linguistics has evolved into a discipline, which relies on corpora as a means of studying language. Corpus linguistics revolutionized language studies because it has provided new ways of analyzing and describing the use of language. *Corpus linguistics* is an area which focuses upon a set of procedures for studying language. By collecting large amounts of data, corpus linguistics provides a new perspective on different aspects of real-life communication and offers support for the view that language can be described using quantitative methods.

Corpus techniques have become an indispensable component of applied linguists. In simple terms, corpus linguistics can be defined as the study of the compilation and analysis of corpora — large collections of language texts chosen to characterize a state or a variety of language.

Corpora are also defined as large, principled and computer-readable collections of texts that allow analysis of patterns of language use across different contexts. The fact that corpora consist of texts stored in an electronic format enables researchers to use special software (concordancers) to conduct automatic searches and gain insights into the structure and regularity of naturally occurring language.

Most important features of corpus-based analysis can be systematized as follows: 1) it is empirical, analyzing the actual patterns of use in natural texts; 2) it utilizes a large collection of natural texts as the basis for analysis; 3) it makes extensive use of computers for analysis; 4) it depends on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques [Szudarski 2018].

According to Tony McEnery²² and Andrew Hardie²³, the following features most typically distinguish different types of studies in corpus linguistics: mode of communication; corpus-based versus corpus-driven linguistics; data collection regime; the use of annotated versus unannotated corpora; total accountability versus data selection; multilingual versus monolingual corpora [McEnery & Hardie 2012].

Mode of communication. Corpora may encode language produced in any mode. There are corpora of spoken and written language. Corpora of written language present the smallest technical challenge to construct.

Material for a spoken corpus is time-consuming to gather and transcribe. Some material may be gathered from sources like the World Wide Web. For example, transcripts of parliamentary debates, called *Hansard reports*. Hansard is the official report of all the UK Parliamentary debates. One can find debates,

²² Tony McEnery (born 1964) — a corpus linguist working at the University of Lancaster, UK, he undertakes research using corpus linguistics in a range of areas across theoretical and applied linguistics.

²³ Andrew Hardie — a corpus linguist working at the University of Lancaster, UK, working on applications of corpus methods in the social sciences and humanities.

petitions, reports dating back over 200 years. Daily debates from Hansard are published on the website the next working day [<https://hansard.parliament.uk/>].

Another example of a spoken corpus is *the International Corpus of English British component* (ICE-GB). ICE began in 1990 with the primary aim of providing material for comparative studies of varieties of English throughout the world. More than twenty centers around the world are preparing corpora of their own national or regional variety of English. These include Australia, Cameroon, Canada, East Africa, Fiji, Great Britain, Hong Kong, India, Ireland, Jamaica, Kenya, Malta, Malaysia, New Zealand, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Trinidad, Tobago, USA [<https://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/projects/ice-gb/index.htm>].

Corpora which include gesture, either as the primary channel for language (as in sign language corpora) or as a means of communication parallel to speech, are relatively new [<https://www.clarin.eu/resource-families/multimodal-corpora>]. The integration of video analysis with textual analysis is clearly crucial for the development and use of such corpora.

Many corpora contain data from more than one mode, such as *the British National Corpus* (BNC). It includes both speech and writing [<https://www.english-corpora.org/bnc/>].

Corpus-based versus corpus-driven linguistics. In corpus linguistics there are different approaches to how the actual analysis should be conducted and how its results should be interpreted.

Scholars distinguish between corpus-based and corpus-driven approaches.

Corpus-based approach. Corpus linguistics is perceived as a *methodology*. It means that corpus data are used to verify the existing theories of language. Corpus-based studies typically use corpus data in order to explore a theory or hypothesis, established in the current literature, in order to validate it, refute it or refine it. The definition of corpus linguistics as a method underpins this approach to the use of corpus data in linguistics.

Corpus-driven approach. It tends to view corpus linguistics as a *theory* which offers a new way of looking at the creation of meaning in a narrow sense and different aspects of the use of language in a broader sense. Corpus-driven linguistics rejects the characterization of corpus linguistics as a method and claims instead that the corpus itself should be the sole source of hypotheses about language. It is claimed that the corpus itself embodies its own theory of language. [McEnery & Hardie 2012].

Thus, the field of corpus linguistics is not homogenous. Some authors regard it as a theoretical approach which may refine a range of theories of language. Others (probably the majority of linguists) use it as a methodology that enhances research into language use and variation. Despite the existing distinction, Tony

McEnery and Andrew Hardie argue that all corpus linguistics can justly be described as corpus-based.

Data collection regime. Data collection emerges as a critical issue for corpus linguistics. Three broad approaches to the issue of choosing what data to collect have emerged. They are the monitor corpus approach, the Web as Corpus, and the sample corpus approach (or the balanced corpus).

The monitor corpus approach. This approach was proposed by John Sinclair²⁴. It seeks to develop a dataset which grows in size over time and which contains a variety of materials. The *Bank of English*, developed at the University of Birmingham, is the best-known example of a monitor corpus. The corpus was started in the 1980s and has been continually expanded since that time. Because of its composition, many books and articles on corpus linguistics suggested that the Bank of English could be used as a ‘monitor corpus’ to look at recent and ongoing changes in English. The Bank of English is only available to a small group of researchers at the University of Birmingham. The vast majority of people who use the data from the Bank of English do it via WordBanks Online.

Another example is the *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA). This corpus was created by Mark Davies, and it is the only large and ‘balanced’ corpus of American English [<https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/>]. COCA is a widely-used corpus, which offers unparalleled insight into variation in English. The corpus contains more than one billion words of text from eight genres: spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, academic texts, TV and movies subtitles, blogs, and other web pages.

The Web as Corpus. It takes as its starting point a massive collection of data that is ever-growing, and uses it for the study of language. The Web as Corpus approach has some specific problems. The web is a mixture of carefully prepared and edited texts. The content of the web is not divided by genre — hence the material returned from a web search tends to be an undifferentiated mass, which requires a great deal of processing to sort into meaningful groups of texts. Moreover, many texts on the web contain errors of all sorts.

The web is a useful source of evidence, which can be invaluable in cases one needs a large quantity of data in order to deal with a low frequency of occurrence. Another problem exists with all studies based on web data that is not downloaded and archived appropriately as the web is forever changing.

The sample corpus approach. The sample corpora represent a particular type of language over a specific span of time. They seek to be *balanced* and *representative* within a particular sampling frame. Corpora which seek balance and representativeness within a given sampling frame are snapshot corpora.

²⁴ John McHardy Sinclair (1933–2007) — an English linguist, a pioneer in the field of discourse analysis, a lexicographer, and an outstanding corpus linguist.

A *balanced corpus* covers a wide range of text categories which are supposed to be representative of the language (variety) under consideration. *Representativeness* refers to the extent to which a sample includes the full range of variability in a population.

Annotated versus unannotated corpora. Linguistic analyses are encoded in the corpus data, and such encoding is called *corpus annotation*. To annotate a corpus means to show parts of speech, assigning to each word the grammatical category. Corpus annotation is largely the process of providing those analyses which a linguist would carry out anyway on whatever data they worked with.

Annotation is an umbrella term that refers to procedures such as *tagging* and *parsing* which are carried out to add linguistic information to a corpus. The aim of annotation is to ‘enhance the corpus contents’ in terms of the linguistic description of the data it contains. McEnery and Hardie distinguish between three types of information that can accompany a corpus:

- » *metadata* (details about a given text such as the name of the author);
- » *textual markup* (information about the formatting of the text such as where italics starts and ends or when a given speaker starts speaking);
- » *linguistic annotation* (assigning grammatical categories or tags to all the words within a corpus).

Annotations themselves may be inaccurate. It is because of the issues of accuracy and consistency that some linguists prefer to use unannotated corpora. Crucially, the type and amount of information added to a corpus depend on the kind of analysis envisioned by its compilers. The most important layers of annotation are: part- of-speech (PoS) tagging, syntactic (grammatical) parsing, error annotation, semantic annotation, phonetic annotation.

Annotating a corpus can be conducted in a number of ways. Annotation can be *manual*, *computer-assisted* (the output provided by a computer is subsequently edited by humans) or *fully automatic*. Automatic systems are the most efficient method and are often used for adding PoS tags, although their accuracy is not error free. One of the examples of an automatic tagger is CLAWS (Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System) which was developed at Lancaster University. CLAWS has been continuously developed since the early 1980s. Both the BNC and COCA have been annotated by means of this system [<https://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws/>].

Total accountability versus data selection. Corpora may also vary in how they are used by the analysts who exploit them. A key difference here is the contrast between total accountability and data selection.

The principle of *total accountability* runs that scholars *must not* select a favorable subset of the data in this way. When approaching the corpus with a hypothesis, one should use the entire corpus to test the hypothesis. To put it

simply, there should be no motivated selection of examples to favor those examples that fit the hypothesis, and no screening out of inconvenient examples. Any claim of total accountability in corpus linguistics must be moderated. We can only seek total accountability relative to the dataset that we are using, not to the entirety of language itself [McEnery & Hardie 2012].

When researchers use the corpus simply as a bank of examples to illustrate a theory they are developing a *corpus-informed research*. The corpus is used simply as a repository of examples and no effort is made to apply the principle of total accountability that is generally accepted within corpus linguistics. Many researchers prefer to work with small amounts of data in detail rather than engage with large corpora.

Multilingual versus monolingual corpora. There may be a number of languages represented in a corpus.

Monolingual corpora represent a range of varieties and genres of a particular language. They are limited to that one language. *The International Corpus of English* is a large monolingual corpus. It represents English, though it allows linguists to compare and contrast a number of international varieties of that language [<https://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/projects/ice.htm>].

A *multilingual corpus* is a corpus involving more than one language. In a narrower sense, a multilingual corpus must involve at least three languages, while those involving only two languages are conventionally referred to as *bilingual corpora*. For example *the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus* consists of original texts and their translations, English to Norwegian and Norwegian to English [<https://www.hf.uio.no/ilos/english/services/knowledge-resources/omc/enpc/>].

It should be noted that there is some confusion surrounding the terminology used in relation to these corpora. Generally, there are three types of corpora involving more than one language:

Type 1. Source texts in one language and translations into one or more other languages. For example, *the Canadian Hansard*. It is a parallel corpus consisting of debates from the Canadian Parliament, published in the country's official languages, English and French [<https://www.ourcommons.ca/documentviewer/en/35-2/house/hansard-index>].

Another example is *CRATER* (Corpus Resources and Terminology Extraction). It is a project involving three languages: English, French and Spanish. The corpus consists entirely of technical texts from the International Telecommunications Union. The corpus consists of 5,5 million words. The texts are tagged with part-of-speech and morphological annotation.

Type 2. Pairs or groups of monolingual corpora designed using the same sampling frame — the source material or device from which a sample is drawn. *The Lancaster Corpus of Mandarin Chinese (LCMC)* provides a valuable resource

for contrastive studies between English and Chinese and a basis for monolingual investigations of Chinese. The corpus has been constructed using written Mandarin Chinese texts published in Mainland China [<https://www.lancaster.ac.uk/fass/projects/corpus/LCMC/>].

Type 3 combines type A and type B. For instance, *the EMILLE corpora* were released in August 2003. EMILLE is decoded as Enabling Minority Language Engineering. It is an electronic corpus of South Asian languages. Alongside 94 million words of monolingual written data, the corpus contains 200000 words of parallel text in English, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Punjabi and Urdu. The spoken corpus data was largely gathered from the BBC's domestic South Asian language radio broadcasts [<http://www.emille.lancs.ac.uk/about.php>].

Different terms have been used by scholars to describe these types of corpora: type A is a *translation corpus*, type B is a *parallel corpus*; type A is a *parallel corpus* whereas type B is a *comparable corpus*. A comparable corpus can be defined as a corpus containing components that are collected using the same sampling method,

e. g. the *same proportions* of the texts of the *same genres* in the *same domains* in a range of *different languages* in the *same sampling period*. The term *parallel corpus* applies to both types — A and B.



GLOSSARY

Acquisition (Language Acquisition) – The process of learning a language, especially the first language (L1) naturally or a second language (L2) through instruction.

Affix – A morpheme added to a word to change its meaning or grammatical function (e.g., **un-** in *undo*, **-ed** in *played*).

Allophone – A variant pronunciation of a phoneme in a particular linguistic environment, without changing meaning (e.g., [p^h] in *pin* vs. [p] in *spin*).

Analytic Language – A language that relies mostly on word order rather than inflection to convey grammatical relationships (e.g., Chinese, English).

Articulatory Phonetics – The study of how speech sounds are produced by the vocal organs.

Bilingualism – The ability to speak and understand two languages fluently.

Bound Morpheme – A morpheme that cannot stand alone as a word (e.g., **-s** in *cats*, **un-** in *undo*).

Broca's Area – A region in the brain (left hemisphere) associated with speech production and processing grammar.

Code-Switching – The practice of alternating between two or more languages or dialects within a conversation.

Cognate – A word that has a common etymological origin with a word in another language (e.g., *night* in English, *nuit* in French, *noche* in Spanish).

Competence (Linguistic Competence) – A speaker's implicit knowledge of the structure and rules of their language.

Corpus Linguistics – The study of language based on large collections (corpora) of real-life text samples.

Descriptive Linguistics – The study of how a language is actually used, rather than prescribing rules for correct usage.

Diachronic Linguistics – The study of how languages change over time.

Dialect – A regional or social variety of a language with distinct pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.

Diglossia – A situation in which two varieties of a language are used in a speech community, one for formal contexts and another for everyday communication.

Etymology – The study of the origin and historical development of words.

Extralinguistic Factors – Non-linguistic influences on language use, such as culture, social status, and geography.

False Cognate – A word that appears similar in two languages but has different meanings (e.g., *embarazada* in Spanish means "pregnant," not "embarrassed").

Fluency – The ability to speak or write a language easily and smoothly.

Free Morpheme – A morpheme that can stand alone as a word (e.g., *dog*, *happy*).

Generative Grammar – A linguistic theory developed by Noam Chomsky that describes the innate set of grammatical rules in the human mind.

Glottal Stop – A speech sound produced by closing and opening the vocal cords (e.g., the sound in the middle of *uh-oh*).

Historical Linguistics – The study of how languages have evolved over time.

Homophone – Words that sound the same but have different meanings (e.g., *to*, *too*, *two*).

Idiolect – The unique language use of an individual speaker.

Inflection – The modification of a word to express different grammatical categories, such as tense, case, or number (e.g., *walk* → *walked*).

Intonation – The rise and fall of pitch in speech, often conveying meaning or emotion.

Jargon – Specialized language used by a particular profession or group.

Kinesics – The study of body language and gestures as a form of communication.

Langue and Parole – Terms coined by Ferdinand de Saussure to distinguish between the abstract system of language (*langue*) and actual speech (*parole*).

Lexicon – The vocabulary of a language or a person.

Linguistic Relativity (Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis) – The idea that language influences thought and perception of the world.

Morpheme – The smallest unit of meaning in a language (e.g., *un-*, *dog*, *-ing*).

Morphology – The study of word formation and structure.

Multilingualism – The ability to communicate in more than two languages.

Neurolinguistics – The study of how language is processed in the brain.

Noam Chomsky – A linguist who developed the theory of generative grammar.

Noun Phrase (NP) – A phrase that functions as a noun (e.g., *the big dog*).

Onomatopoeia – A word that imitates a sound (e.g., *buzz*, *meow*).

Overgeneralization – The application of a linguistic rule too broadly (e.g., a child saying *goed* instead of *went*).

Phoneme – The smallest unit of sound that distinguishes meaning (e.g., /p/ vs. /b/ in *pat* and *bat*).

Phonetics – The study of speech sounds and their production.

Phonology – The study of how sounds function within a particular language.

Pragmatics – The study of how language is used in context.

Quantifier – A word or phrase that indicates quantity (e.g., *some*, *all*, *many*).

Register – A variety of language used in a specific social setting (e.g., formal vs. informal).

Retroflex – A consonant sound produced with the tongue curled back (e.g., some sounds in Hindi).

Semantics – The study of meaning in language.

Sociolinguistics – The study of language and its relationship with society.

Syntax – The rules that govern sentence structure.

Tone Language – A language where pitch affects word meaning (e.g., Mandarin Chinese).

Transformational Grammar – A theory by Chomsky about how sentences are structured in the mind.

Typology (Linguistic Typology) – The classification of languages based on structural characteristics.

Universal Grammar (UG) – Chomsky's theory that all human languages share a common underlying structure.

Utterance – A spoken or written unit of speech.

Velar – A sound produced with the back of the tongue against the soft palate (e.g., /k/ in *cat*).

Verbal Communication – The use of words and speech to communicate.

Word Order – The arrangement of words in a sentence (e.g., Subject-Verb-Object in English).

X-Bar Theory – A syntactic theory that explains phrase structure rules.

Yod Dropping – The loss of the /j/ sound in words (e.g., *new* pronounced as *noo*).

Zero Morpheme – A morpheme that has no overt form but affects meaning (e.g., singular vs. plural deer).

VII. QUESTIONS FOR ASSESSMENT

- What does pragmatics mainly study?

- a) The phonetic properties of language
- b) The meaning of speech in context
- c) Grammar rules
- d) Linguistic history

Answer: b) The meaning of speech in context

- Who introduced the concept of pragmatics into linguistics?

- a) Noam Chomsky
- b) Charles Morris
- c) Ferdinand de Saussure
- d) Michael Halliday

Answer: b) Charles Morris

- What is **deixis** related to in pragmatics?

- a) Speech sounds
- b) Changes in sentence meaning
- c) Indicators of place, person, and time
- d) Grammar structure

Answer: c) Indicators of place, person, and time

- How many cooperative principles does Grice propose?

- a) 2
- b) 3
- c) 4
- d) 5

Answer: c) 4

- Which of the following is **not** part of Grice's cooperative principles?

- a) Quantity principle
- b) Quality principle
- c) Compatibility principle
- d) Relevance principle

Answer: c) Compatibility principle

• What is **implicature**?

- a) A directly stated meaning
- b) A meaning implied indirectly
- c) The lexical meaning of a word
- d) The syntactic structure of a language

Answer: b) A meaning implied indirectly

• Who developed the **Speech Act Theory**?

- a) John Searle
- b) Noam Chomsky
- c) Leonard Bloomfield
- d) George Lakoff

Answer: a) John Searle

• Which of the following is **not** a type of speech act?

- a) Locutionary act
- b) Perlocutionary act
- c) Declarative act
- d) Illocutionary act

Answer: c) Declarative act

• What is a **politeness strategy**?

- a) A way of recognizing others in a conversation
- b) The syntactic analysis of phrases
- c) The acoustic analysis of speech sounds
- d) The historical development of a language

Answer: a) A way of recognizing others in a conversation

• What can happen if pragmatic rules are violated?

- a) It improves speech clarity
- b) It reduces communication effectiveness
- c) It only results in grammatical errors
- d) No change occurs

Answer: b) It reduces communication effectiveness

• What is **conversational implicature**?

- a) A directly stated meaning
- b) A hidden meaning understood through context
- c) The phonetic characteristics of linguistic units
- d) Dialectal differences

Answer: b) A hidden meaning understood through context

• What is the main focus of pragmatics?

- a) The grammatical analysis of linguistic units
- b) The phonetic properties of words
- c) The contextual characteristics of speech
- d) The physical properties of sound waves

Answer: c) The contextual characteristics of speech

• What does **covert pragmatics** refer to?

- a) Public speech relations

- b) Hidden contextual meanings
- c) Linguistic experiments
- d) Dialectal differences

Answer: b) Hidden contextual meanings

- What does a **perlocutionary act** refer to?

- a) The linguistic structure of speech
- b) The effect of speech on the listener
- c) The phonetic properties of words
- d) A specific dialect

Answer: b) The effect of speech on the listener

- What is an **indirect speech act**?

- a) A direct impact of speech
- b) A meaning expressed indirectly
- c) Phonetic elements
- d) Formal speech forms

Answer: b) A meaning expressed indirectly

- Who developed the **Relevance Theory**?

- a) Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson
- b) John Austin and John Searle
- c) Ferdinand de Saussure and Roman Jakobson
- d) Michael Halliday and Norman Fairclough

Answer: a) Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson

- What does **pragmatic competence** refer to?

- a) A deep knowledge of language rules
- b) The ability to adapt to contextual and social aspects of communication
- c) The production of speech sounds
- d) Writing proficiency

Answer: b) The ability to adapt to contextual and social aspects of communication

- What does a **positive politeness strategy** mean?

- a) Encouraging friendly and warm communication
- b) Analyzing the grammatical features of a language
- c) The phonetic transformation of speech sounds
- d) The study of semantic differences

Answer: a) Encouraging friendly and warm communication

- Which of the following is a **pragmatic category**?

- a) Sentence structure
- b) Contextual meaning
- c) Grammar rules
- d) Lexemes

Answer: b) Contextual meaning

- Why are **conversational rules** important in pragmatics?

- a) To ensure correct pronunciation
- b) To make communication understandable and effective
- c) To differentiate dialects

d) To create linguistic experiments

Answer: b) To make communication understandable and effective

• **What does sociolinguistics study?**

- a) The syntactic structure of language
- b) The relationship between language and society
- c) Only phonetic systems
- d) The history and evolution of language

Answer: b) The relationship between language and society

• **What is code-switching?**

- a) The use of different language codes within speech
- b) The process of modifying computer codes
- c) Dialectal changes
- d) Changes in speech sounds

Answer: a) The use of different language codes within speech

• **What does the concept of diglossia refer to?**

- a) The ability to speak only one language
- b) The use of two languages or dialects for formal and informal purposes in a society
- c) The process of phonetic change
- d) The grammatical aspects of speech

Answer: b) The use of two languages or dialects for formal and informal purposes in a society

• **What research methods does sociolinguistics use?**

- a) Ethnographic observation and interviews
- b) Only laboratory experiments
- c) Only the study of written texts
- d) The study of phonetics and morphology

Answer: a) Ethnographic observation and interviews

• **What is a social dialect?**

- a) A language variety specific to a certain social group
- b) A newly formed language due to class differences
- c) A concept related only to official languages
- d) The absence of any social influence on language

Answer: a) A language variety specific to a certain social group

• **What does linguistic imperialism refer to?**

- a) The influence of dominant languages on smaller languages
- b) The historical evolution of a language
- c) The change in speech sounds
- d) The transformation of syntactic structure

Answer: a) The influence of dominant languages on smaller languages

• **What is language planning?**

- a) The process of regulating and developing a language's status in society
- b) Simply following grammatical rules
- c) The study of the phonetic characteristics of dialects

d) Analyzing a language in a laboratory setting

Answer: a) The process of regulating and developing a language's status in society

• **What is language policy?**

a) The regulation of language use by a state or society

b) The work of linguists only

c) Conducting only linguistic research

d) Scientific discussions about speech sounds and language

Answer: a) The regulation of language use by a state or society

• **What is bilingualism?**

a) The ability to speak two or more languages fluently

b) Only the ability to write in multiple languages

c) Only the process of linguistic research

d) Grammatical mistakes in speech

Answer: a) The ability to speak two or more languages fluently

• **What is the main goal of sociolinguistics?**

a) To understand the relationship between language and society

b) To develop only linguistic theories

c) To study language and literature

d) To analyze only phonetic systems

Answer: a) To understand the relationship between language and society

FOYDALANILGAN ADABIYOTLAR RO'YXATI

I. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining asarlari:

1. Mirziyoev Sh.M. Buyuk kelajagimizni mard va olijanob xalqimiz bilan birga quramiz. – T.: “O'zbekiston”, 2017. – 488 b.
2. Mirziyoev Sh.M. Milliy taraqqiyot yo'limizni qat'iyat bilan davom ettirib, yangi bosqichga ko'taramiz. 1-jild. – T.: “O'zbekiston”, 2017. – 592 b.
3. Mirziyoev Sh.M. Xalqimizning roziligi bizning faoliyatimizga berilgan eng oliy bahodir. 2-jild. –T.: “O'zbekiston”, 2018. – 507 b.
4. Mirziyoev Sh.M. Niyati ulug' xalqning ishi ham ulug', hayoti yorug' va kelajagi farovon bo'ladi. 3-jild.– T.: “O'zbekiston”, 2019. – 400 b.
5. Mirziyoev Sh.M. Milliy tiklanishdan – milliy yuksalish sari. 4-jild.– T.: “O'zbekiston”, 2020. – 400 b.

II. Normativ-huquqiy hujjatlar:

6. O'zbekiston Respublikasining Konstitutsiyasi.–T.:O'zbekiston, 2023.
7. O'zbekiston Respublikasining 2020 yil 23 sentabrda qabul qilingan “Ta'lim to'g'risida”gi O'RQ-637-sonli Qonuni.
8. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2017 yil 7 fevral “O'zbekiston Respublikasini yanada rivojlantirish bo'yicha Harakatlar strategiyasi to'g'risida”gi 4947-sonli Farmoni.
9. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2018 yil 21 sentabr “2019-2021 yillarda O'zbekiston Respublikasini innovatsion rivojlantirish strategiyasini tasdiqlash to'g'risida”gi PF-5544-sonli Farmoni.
10. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2019 yil 27 may “O'zbekiston Respublikasida korrupsiyaga qarshi kurashish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida”gi PF-5729-son Farmoni.
11. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2019 yil 27 avgust “Oliy ta'lim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining uzluksiz malakasini oshirish tizimini joriy etish to'g'risida”gi PF-5789-sonli Farmoni.
12. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2019 yil 8 oktabr “O'zbekiston Respublikasi oliy ta'lim tizimini 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish konsepsiyasini tasdiqlash to'g'risida”gi PF-5847-sonli Farmoni.
13. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidenti Shavkat Mirziyoevning 2020 yil 25 yanvardagi Oliy Majlisga Murojaatnomasi.
14. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining 2001 yil 16 avgustdagi “Oliy ta'limning davlat ta'lim standartlarini tasdiqlash to'g'risida”gi 343-sonli Qarori.
15. O'zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining 2015 yil 10 yanvardagi “Oliy ta'limning Davlat ta'lim standartlarini tasdiqlash to'g'risida”gi 2001 yil 16 avgustdagi “343-sonli qororiga o'zgartirish va qo'shimchalar kiritish haqida”gi 3-sonli qarori.
16. O'zbekiston Respublikasi xalq ta'limi tizimini 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish konsepsiyasini tasdiqlash to'g'risidagi O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2019 yil 29 apreldagi PF-5712-son Farmoni. (Qonun hujjatlari ma'lumotlari milliy bazasi, 29.04.2019 y., 06/19/5712/3034-son)

III. Maxsus adabiyotlar:

17. Wierzbicka, A. "Linguistic Categorization and Cognitive Linguistics"
18. Lakoff, G. "Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things"
19. Verschueren, J. "Understanding Pragmatics"
20. McEnery, T. Corpus Linguistics: Method, Theory and Practice.
21. Chomsky, N. "Syntactic Structures"
22. Evans, V. "A Glossary of Cognitive Linguistics"
23. Lyons, J. "Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics"

IV. Internet saytlar:

24. <http://yedu.uz> – O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy ta’lim, fan va innovatsiyalar vazirligi.
25. <http://lex.uz> – O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Qonun hujjatlari ma’lumotlari milliy bazasi.
26. <http://bimm.uz> – Oliy ta’lim tizimi pedagog va rahbar kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va ularning malakasini oshirishni tashkil etish Bosh ilmiy-metodik markazi.
27. <http://ziyonet.uz> – Ta’lim portali Ziyonet.
28. <http://natlib.uz> – Alisher Navoiy nomidagi O‘zbekiston Milliy kutubxonasi.